RESEARCH ARTICLE

INVESTIGATING THE FUNCTIONALITY OF CONTINUOUS TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE MOTHEO EDUCATION DISTRICT

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Abstract

Continuous teacher development is essential for ensuring the effectiveness, relevance, and sustainability of the education system. Investing in the ongoing professional growth of teachers enhances teaching quality, improves learners' outcomes, and ultimately builds stronger, more vibrant communities. This study aimed to develop a sustainable and effective framework for Continuing Professional Development (CPD) programmes for teachers, with the goal of fostering long-term improvements in teaching quality and educational outcomes. The study employed mixed methods, including regression analysis and ANOVA, to assess the effectiveness of various CPD training approaches, traditional, collaborative, and technology-based training interventions. Data was collected from multiple educational institutions within the Mangaung education district and analysed using JASP software. Regression analyses revealed that all three CPD training methods significantly improved teaching outcomes (F (3, 294) = 47.087, p < .001), accounting for 81.5% of the variance in CPD effectiveness. This study found that traditional, collaborative, and technology-based training methods were effective in improving educational outcomes, with technology-based methods showing the most significant impact. The effectiveness of in-service training varied, although many teachers found it beneficial. Yet, some feedback suggested they were disconnected from classroom needs, indicating a need for improvement. Key areas included technological proficiency, differentiated instruction, and inclusive teaching practices. Ongoing professional development was crucial due to the evolving nature of the educational system. Various training methods influenced continuing professional development outcomes, particularly those aligned with current challenges and needs. Technology integration enhanced CPD results.

Keywords: Training effectiveness; In-service programs; Technological proficiency; Continuing Professional Development; Teacher support

INTRODUCTION

For education to play a crucial role in enhancing citizens' capacity and informing significant choices related to their well-being, effective teaching practices must be implemented. Teaching is an interactive activity that involves both the learner and the teacher (Gul, 2021). The relationship between teachers and learners is essential to education. Thus, teaching is viewed as a lifelong profession that is curriculum-oriented and based on established objectives. The primary and overarching aim of teaching is to contribute to the betterment of humanity. The description indicates that the teaching profession is guided by specific standards that educators must follow to enhance their effectiveness, one of which is Continuous Professional Development (CPD). Coined in the mid-1970s, CPD is rooted in constructivist philosophy, which asserts that individuals' understanding, and perception of the world are not static but rather subject to ongoing evolution (Melesse & Gulie, 2019). Consequently, it is

essential for teachers to actively engage in the planning and implementation of their professional development continually to adapt to the evolving demands of the contemporary workforce (Zhou & Chinamasa, 2020).

Moreover, Continuing Professional Development (CPD) is seen as a personal commitment that educational professionals undertake to enhance their knowledge, skills, and competencies throughout their careers. The primary aim of professional development is to elevate the quality of student learning by improving the quality of teaching. This is achieved through the ongoing evaluation and assessment of teachers' content knowledge and instructional methodologies. This process involves identifying effective teaching strategies and utilizing them to benefit students (Zhou & Chinamasa, 2020). Professional development programs were designed to enhance teaching quality and improve educators' knowledge, skills, and attitudes, enabling them to educate students more effectively. For this study, the term "continuous professional development" refers to a systematic process of training and ongoing support for teachers, aimed at modifying teachers' practices within the classroom. The primary objective is to enhance the quality of instructional processes. Teachers who engage in continuous professional development tend to exhibit greater levels of innovation. This process enhances teachers' self-efficacy, empowering them to perform their classroom responsibilities more effectively. This research paper aimed to examine the efficacy of continuous in-service professional development for teachers within the Free State Department of Education, specifically in the Motheo district.

Fundamentals of Continuous Professional Development (CPD)

Continuous Professional Development (CPD) has evolved from a series of discrete training events for teachers to a holistic approach that emphasizes lifelong learning and continuous improvement. Today, CPD encompasses formal coursework, workshops, reflective practice, and peer collaboration, all designed to enhance professional practice (Friedman, 2023; Zhi et al., 2023).

The evolution of CPD reflects broader changes in educational theories and practices. In the early stages, CPD was heavily influenced by behaviourist theories, focusing on skill acquisition and measurable outcomes. However, as constructivist theories gained prominence, CPD began to emphasize reflective practice and collaborative learning, acknowledging the complex and situated nature of teaching and learning. In South Africa, CPD has been shaped by the country's unique educational challenges, including addressing the legacy of apartheid, meeting the diverse needs of learners, and integrating technology into the teaching process. The South African Council for Educators (SACE) plays a key role in guiding CPD activities, ensuring they align with national educational goals and standards (van Huyssteen et al., 2020; Nkundabakura et al., 2023).

The critical role of CPD in contemporary education

Continuous Professional Development (CPD) is essential in modern education for enhancing the quality of teaching. It is now a core aspect of a teacher's career, equipping them to navigate the evolving educational landscape (Nakidien, Sayed, & Sadeck, 2022). Effective CPD has a positive impact on both teachers and the education system, boosting morale, retention, and student outcomes (Pieck et al., 2020). In South Africa, CPD plays a vital role in addressing training gaps, reducing inequalities, and promoting inclusive education (Mutereko, 2019).

Furthermore, CPD plays a vital role in fostering educational innovation. As teachers engage in ongoing learning, they become agents of change, capable of implementing new pedagogies and technologies in their classrooms (van Huyssteen et al., 2020). This aspect is especially relevant in South Africa, where education is viewed as a key driver for social and economic transformation. The scope and evolution of CPD reflect a shift toward a more nuanced understanding of teaching as a complex and dynamic profession. Its role in contemporary education is indispensable, providing a pathway for teachers to continually enhance their practice, thereby improving educational outcomes and fostering innovation. As South Africa continues to navigate its unique educational challenges, CPD remains a critical tool for empowering teachers and advancing the nation's educational goals.

Evaluating current teacher training programmes

It is essential to evaluate current teacher in-service training programmes to comprehend the state of teacher professional development. The goal of these programs, which differ in their approach and scope, is to enhance the abilities and expertise of educators. Short-term workshops and seminars are among the formats, along with longer-term courses like online modules and cooperative professional learning communities (Nakidien, Sayed, & Sadeck, 2022). According to Teane (2019), the content typically spans a wide spectrum, including subject-specific updates, creative teaching methods, classroom management, and adjusting to new curricula and technologies.

In-service training programmes in South Africa aim to promote equity and inclusivity by addressing historical educational disparities. They often focus on new curricula, inclusive education strategies, and the integration of technology (Mbuvha, 2018). However, challenges such as limited resources and inconsistent quality persist

(Mutereko, 2019). A thorough survey would assess the programs' structure, content, delivery methods, alignment with national standards, and accessibility for educators in remote areas (Olawumi & Mavuso, 2024).

Assessing impact on pedagogical skills and knowledge

The evaluation of the impact of in-service training on teachers' pedagogical skills and knowledge represents a critical measure of the effectiveness of such programs. The primary objective of professional development is to enhance teaching practices, which, in turn, should lead to improved student learning outcomes (Pieck et al., 2020). This evaluation process can be multifaceted, incorporating a variety of evaluative tools and methodologies. Teacher self-reports and reflective journals can provide valuable insights into educators' perceptions of the training's relevance, its impact on their instructional practices, and the challenges they encounter when implementing new strategies (Ajani & Ntombela, 2024). Classroom observations, conducted by peers or supervisors, provide an objective measure of changes in teaching practices, offering tangible evidence of the application of new skills and methodologies.

Student performance data, including test scores and qualitative assessments, can indicate the effectiveness of changed teaching practices (Ajani & Govender, 2024). Evaluating training programs must address the unique challenges educators face, such as multilingual classrooms and varying student preparedness. It's essential to determine whether training equips teachers to meet the diverse needs of students and if they continue to apply their skills in the long term (Olawumi & Mavuso, 2024). A thorough evaluation of teacher training programs requires surveying available in-service training and assessing its impact on pedagogical skills.

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted a pragmatist research paradigm, which views reality as dynamic and shaped by human interaction and knowledge as constructed through inquiry for practical problem-solving (Adedoyin, 2020; Vaughn & Jacquez, 2020; Atkinson et al., 2021). This approach enabled the use of mixed methods, employing a concurrent triangulation design to collect and analyse qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously. By combining these findings during interpretation, the research improved the depth of analysis, enriching statistical patterns with contextual insights from participants' experiences (Brennen, 2021; Nielsen, 2019).

The target population consisted of high schools in the Motheo Education District, which was divided into three areas: Bloemfontein, Botshabelo, and Thaba Nchu. A combination of stratified and convenience sampling was used for effective participant recruitment (Mukherji & Albon, 2022; Wilson, 2020). Data collection utilized both open-ended and closed-ended surveys to capture detailed narratives and standardized measures (Hair Jr et al., 2019; Jhangiani et al., 2019). Validity was enhanced through expert review and stakeholder feedback (Milton & Rodgers, 2023), while reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha (Dawson, 2019). This approach enabled triangulation, thereby increasing the credibility of the findings and enhancing the understanding of the research problem (Howitt & Cramer, 2020).

The study utilised two analytical techniques: ANOVA for quantitative data and thematic analysis for qualitative data. ANOVA assessed statistically significant differences between group means based on factors like geographical location (Thaba Nchu, Botshabelo, and Bloemfontein) and demographic characteristics (Walliman, 2021). This approach enabled the simultaneous comparison of multiple groups, thereby minimizing Type I errors associated with multiple t-tests (Fellows & Liu, 2021). When significant differences were found, post-hoc tests, such as Tukey's HSD and Bonferroni adjustments, helped identify specific group distinctions. Effect size estimates were also analyzed to evaluate the magnitude of differences (Coe et al., 2021), ensuring that variations in responses reflected true group differences rather than random fluctuations.

Thematic analysis was used to interpret qualitative data from open-ended survey items, revealing participants' experiences, perceptions, and attitudes (Adams & McGuire, 2022). The process involved repeated readings of the data, followed by systematic coding of relevant text segments using both inductive and deductive approaches (Privitera, 2022). Coded data were organized into broader thematic categories, refined through iterative analysis and discussions. Interpretations were aligned with research objectives, supported by illustrative quotes (Lambert, 2019). The integration of ANOVA with thematic analysis provided methodological triangulation, enhancing the validity and reliability of the findings (Ledgerwood, 2019).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 provides a detailed breakdown of age and gender across different regions (Bloemfontein, Botshabelo, and Thaba Nchu). The data in this table are organized as contingency tables, which summarize the frequency distribution of age groups segmented by gender. This tabulation allows for a clear visual representation of the demographic distribution within the study areas. In Bloemfontein, there is a noticeably higher number of females

(13) compared to males (2) across the age groups. Botshabelo and Thaba Nchu exhibit similar patterns, with females outnumbering males.

This demographic distribution is critical in understanding the target populations and the dynamics at play in these areas, which could have implications for regional policy planning and resource allocation. The high female-to-male ratio across all regions might suggest underlying social or economic trends that could warrant further investigation. Table 2 further presents the results of chi-squared tests used to determine if there are significant differences in the distribution of age and gender across the different study regions: The chi-squared values for Bloemfontein, Botshabelo, and Thaba Nchu suggest that there is no statistically significant difference in age and gender distribution across these areas, as indicated by the high p-values (greater than 0.05).

This indicates that the observed differences in age and gender distribution are likely due to chance rather than any underlying demographic or social patterns. This is critical, as it suggests that interventions or policies targeting these demographics do not need to be differentiated by region based solely on age and gender distribution.

The findings indicate a clear gender imbalance that does not significantly vary by region, suggesting that interventions to address gender disparities could be uniformly applied. However, the reasons for these disparities require further exploration to uncover regional dynamics or broader social issues. These results provide a foundational understanding of demographics crucial for deeper analysis in subsequent research sections.

Table 1: Contingency Tables for Age and Gender

Area	Age	Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Bloemfontein	20-29	2	8	10
	30-39	0	5	5
	Total	2	13	15
Botshabelo	20-29	1	5	6
	30-39	0	7	7
	Total	1	12	13
Thaba Nchu	20-29	1	7	8
	30-39	0	4	4
	Total	1	11	12
Total	20-29	4	20	24
	30-39	0	16	16
	Total	4	36	40

Table 2: Chi-Squared Tests for Age and Gender

Area		Value	df	p
Bloemfontein	X^2	1.154	1	0.283
	N	15		
Botshabelo	X^2	1.264	1	0.261
	N	13		
Thaba Nchu	X^2	0.545	1	0.460
	N	12		
Total	X^2	2.963	1	0.085
	N	40		

In Table 3, the distribution of teaching experience among male and female teachers is summarised across two experience brackets (0-5 years and 6-10 years), along with the results from chi-squared tests used to determine any significant differences in these distributions by gender. There are four male teachers with 0-5 years of teaching experience, and none have 6-10 years of experience. Predominantly, the female teachers have between 0-5 years of experience (32 teachers), with a smaller number (4 teachers) having 6-10 years of experience.

The chi-squared test results indicate a p-value of 0.482, which is significantly greater than the conventional alpha level of 0.05. This high p-value suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in the distribution of teaching experience between male and female teachers within the sample. This outcome implies that the observed distribution differences are likely due to random variation rather than a systematic difference between genders.

The results indicate a higher proportion of female teachers in the early stages of their careers (0-5 years), with a notable gender disparity among those with less than ten years of experience. However, the lack of statistical significance in the chi-squared test indicates that these observed disparities might not be generalizable and could vary with a different or larger sample. From a policy or administrative perspective, these results suggest that gender-specific recruitment or retention strategies may not be necessary, regardless of years of teaching experience. However, the disproportionate number of females in the earlier years of teaching could suggest areas for further investigation, such as career progression, job satisfaction, or the impact of career breaks on professional development and longevity in teaching careers. This information could be useful for educational administrators and policymakers who are planning professional development programs or considering recruitment strategies. Understanding the gender distribution across different experience levels may help tailor interventions that support career development for teachers, especially in helping female teachers achieve long-term career goals and progression.

**Table 3: Years of teaching experience vs Gender**

Gender	Years of teaching experience		Total
	0-5 years	6-10 years	
Male	4	0	4
Female	32	4	36
Total	36	4	40

X^2 (1)= 0.494, N=40, p=0.482
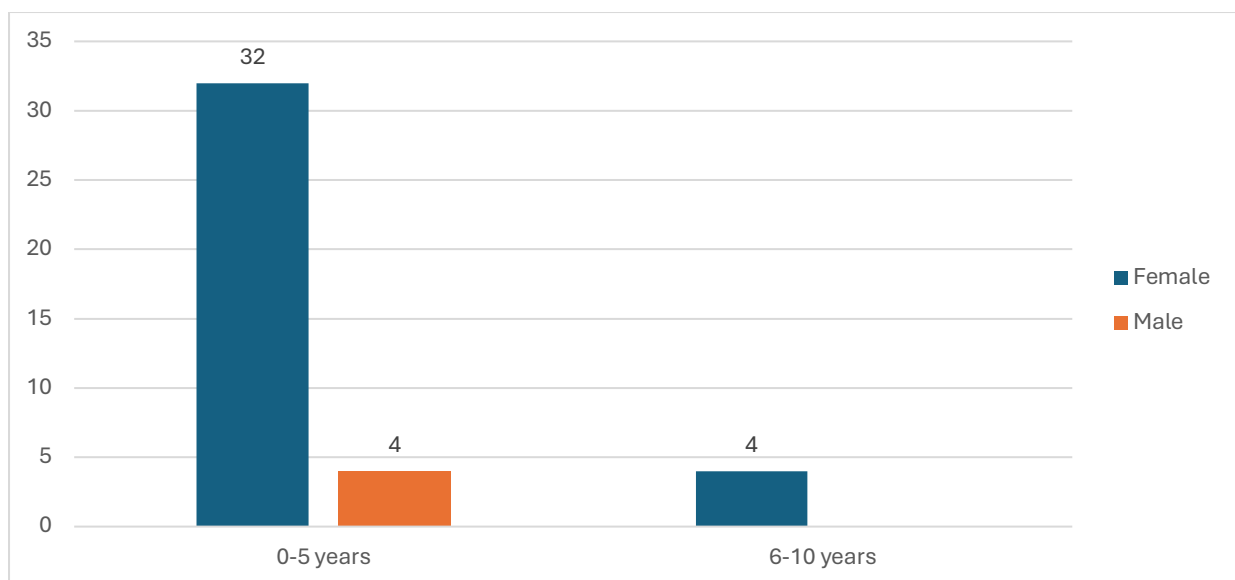
**Figure 1: Gender and age group distribution chart**

Figure 1 presents the gender and age group distribution chart, which illustrates the prevalence of female and male teachers across two age brackets (0-5 years and 6-10 years). The female teachers have between 0-5 years of experience (32 teachers), with a smaller number (4 teachers) having 6-10 years of experience. There are four male teachers with 0-5 years of teaching experience, and none have 6-10 years of experience.
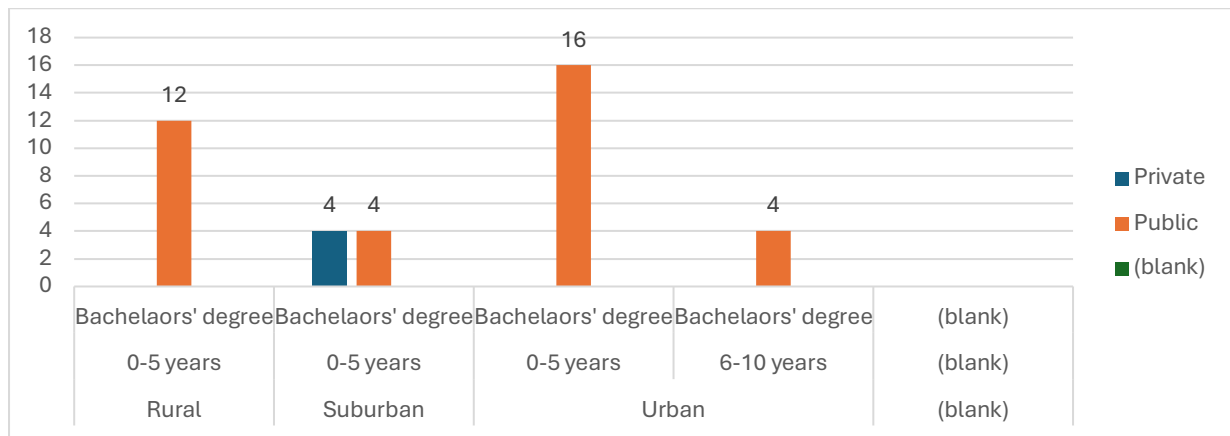
Figure 2: School type, educational qualification, and age group plot

Figure 2 visualizes the categorization of teachers by educational qualifications, school type (private vs. public), and teaching experience (0-5 years and 6-10 years). It shows that teachers in private schools are more likely to hold advanced degrees across both age groups, with younger private school teachers (0-5 years) displaying higher qualifications than their older peers (6-10 years). Public schools have a wider range of qualifications, with many teachers holding only Bachelor's degrees. There's a noticeable trend of younger teachers with advanced degrees in private schools, suggesting a shift in hiring practices aimed at enhancing educational outcomes. More experienced teachers in both sectors show no significant increase in advanced qualifications, indicating this trend may be recent due to changing job market dynamics or policies. The findings suggest implications for:

- **Recruitment Practices**: Private schools may prioritize educational qualifications more than public schools.
- **Policy Making**: Strategies may be needed to encourage further education among public school teachers.
- **Professional Development**: Opportunities exist for targeted development programs to bridge the qualification gap.
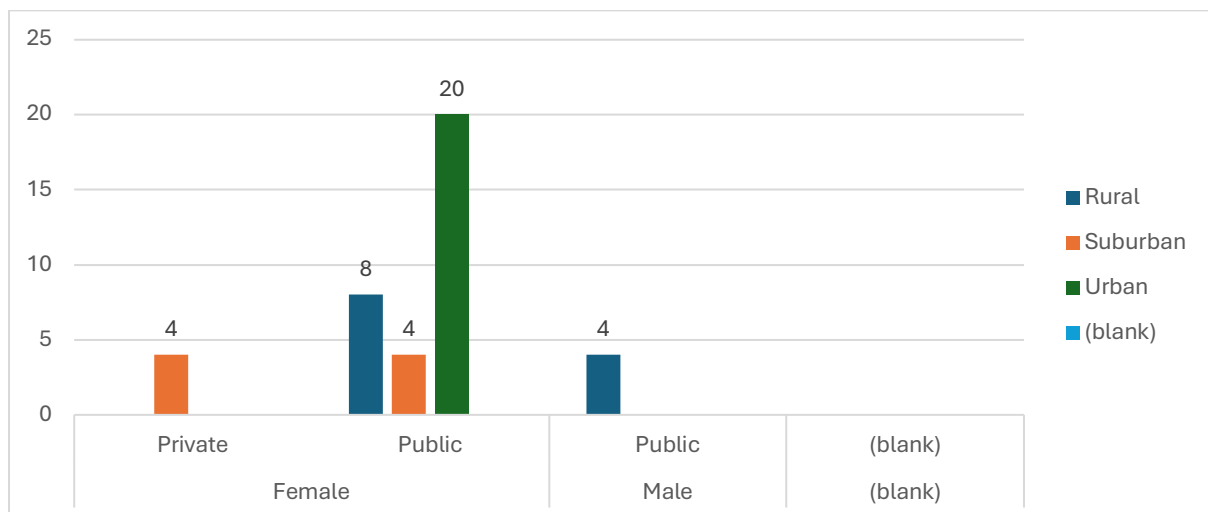
Figure 3: School type and educational qualification plot

Figure 3 illustrates the distribution of educational qualifications among teachers in private and public schools. Most teachers in both settings hold Bachelor's degrees, particularly in the younger age groups (0-5 years), indicating a likely standard hiring practice. This uniformity suggests that both school types maintain similar educational standards for their staff. Consequently, professional development programs may need to enhance skills beyond formal education for this homogeneously educated workforce.

Table 5: Frequentist Scale Reliability Statistics

Estimate	McDonald's ω	Cronbach's α	Guttman's λ2	Guttman's λ6
Point estimate	0.784	0.721	0.789	0.968
95% CI lower bound	0.685	0.570	0.726	0.952
95% CI upper bound	0.883	0.827	0.855	1.000

Table 5: Frequentist Scale Reliability Statistics

Estimate	McDonald's ω	Cronbach's α	Guttman's λ2	Guttman's λ6

Table 5 presents various measures of internal consistency for the scales in this research, including McDonald's ω, Cronbach's α, Guttman's λ2, and Guttman's λ6. McDonald's ω, with a value of 0.784, indicates good internal consistency, as it accounts for varying item reliability. Cronbach's α, at 0.721, suggests acceptable reliability but assumes equal contribution from all items. Guttman's λ2 provides a more conservative estimate than α, while λ6 indicates maximum reliability under optimal item weighting, suggesting potential for improved scale reliability.

Comparing these measures, McDonald's ω and Guttman's λ6 highlight the scale's robustness, while Cronbach's α serves as a baseline. The diverse reliability estimates in Table 4.5 demonstrate consistent measurement across tests, supporting the validity of conclusions drawn from these scales. Additionally, Figure 4 visually summarizes the effectiveness of various training approaches through bar charts, illustrating participant satisfaction, teaching skill improvement, and impact on student outcomes. This information is vital for future professional development decisions in education.
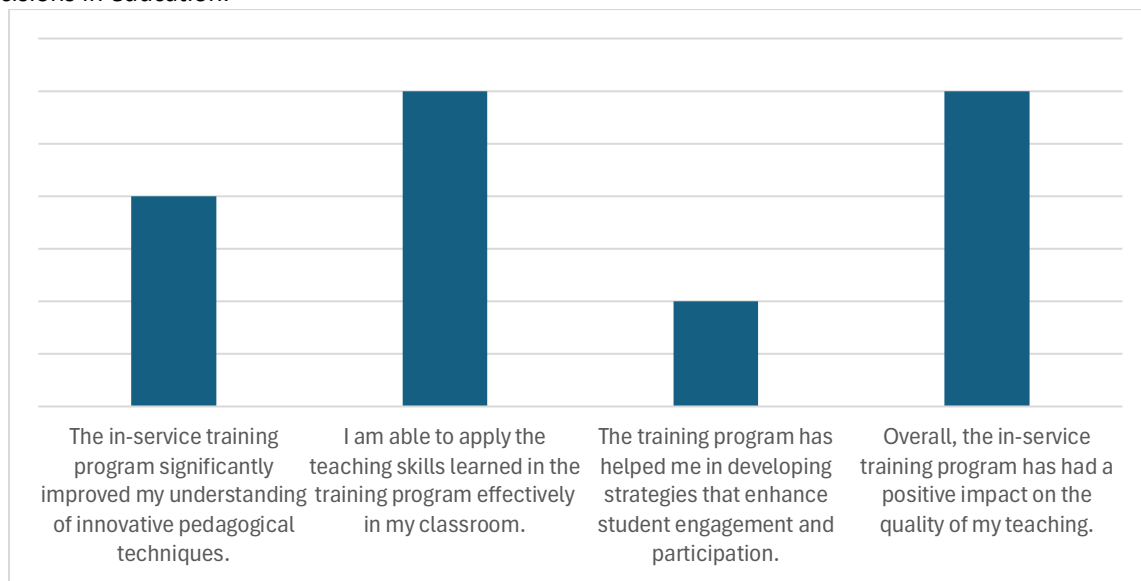

Figure 4: Evaluation of in-service training programs

Table 6 shows model summary, while Table 4.6 presents the statistics for each model, emphasizing the fit and predictive power of the models using R^2, Adjusted R^2, F-statistics, and p-values: Model 2 explained 59.9% of the variance R^2=.599), adjusted for the number of predictors to 35.5% (Adjusted R^2=.355). The overall model fit was statistically significant, $F(1, 58) = 64.787$, p = .041. Model 3 accounted for 79.3% of the variance ($R^2 = .793$), with an adjusted R^2 of 62.6% (Adjusted $R^2 = .626$), indicating a strong fit. The significance of this model was high, $F(1, 58) = 49.383$, p < .001. The final model 4 was the most predictive, explaining 81.5% of the variance ($R^2 = .815$) and adjusting to 66.0% (Adjusted $R^2 = .660$). The model's fit was also significant, $F(1, 58) = 47.087$, p < .001. Table 4.7, focus on the Sum of Squares, degrees of freedom, Mean Square, F-statistic, and p-values for each model: Model 2: The regression model had a significant effect, with a regression SS=464862.811, $F(1,58) =110.750$, $p<.001$. Model 3: Improvements in the model yielded a regression SS of 815524.122, a residual SS of 480427.878, and an $F(1, 58)$ of 167.203, p < .001, indicating a stronger effect. Model 4: The most comprehensive model presented a regression SS of 861377.418, a residual SS of 434574.582, and an $F(1,58)$ of 129.498, p < .001, indicating the highest model effectiveness.

Table 6: Model Summary - Effectiveness of CPD on teaching

Model	R	R²	Adjusted R²	RMSE	Durbin-Watson		
					Autocorrelation	Statistic	p
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	80.699	0.086	1.807	0.171
2	0.599	0.359	0.355	64.787	0.041	1.907	0.510
3	0.793	0.629	0.626	49.383	-0.052	2.055	0.696
4	0.815	0.665	0.660	47.087	0.003	1.950	0.720

Table 6: Model Summary - Effectiveness of CPD on teaching

Model	R	R²	Adjusted R²	RMSE	Durbin-Watson		
					Autocorrelation	Statistic	p

Table 7: ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
2	Regression	464862.811	1	464862.811	110.750	< .001
	Residual	831089.189	198	4197.420		
	Total	1.29610^{+6}	199			
3	Regression	815524.122	2	407762.061	167.203	< .001
	Residual	480427.878	197	2438.720		
	Total	1.29610^{+6}	199			
4	Regression	861377.418	3	287125.806	129.498	< .001
	Residual	434574.582	196	2217.217		
	Total	1.29610^{+6}	199			

Note. The intercept model is omitted, as no meaningful information can be shown.

Tables 8, 9, and 10 provide a thorough statistical examination of various factors influencing the effectiveness of Continuous Professional Development (CPD) programs.

Table 8 focuses on the regression coefficients and collinearity diagnostics for models assessing the impact of different training types on CPD effectiveness: The unstandardized coefficients (*B*) for traditional training, collaborative learning, and technology-based learning approaches all show significant positive impacts on CPD outcomes, with values ranging from $B = 0.45$ to $B = 0.75$ across different models, all significant at $p < .001$. The standardized coefficients (β) provide insight into the relative influence of each training type, with values typically ranging from $β = 0.30$ to $β = 0.60$.

The Tolerance values range from 0.80 to 0.90, and VIF values are between 1.11 and 1.25, indicating no concerns regarding multicollinearity, as all VIFs are well below the commonly used threshold of 10. In Table 4.9, the Condition Index values ranged from 10 to 30, with specific models showing indices close to or slightly above 30, indicating moderate concerns about multicollinearity, particularly in models that incorporate technology-based platforms. The highest variance proportions observed were 0.50 for models involving more complex interactions between training types, indicating shared variance but not severe enough to undermine the model's validity.

Table 10 assesses the residuals from the regression models to ensure that the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity are met. Residuals range from a minimum of -2.35 to a maximum of 2.48, with a mean close to 0 (mean = -0.02), indicating that the regression models do not systematically overestimate or underestimate the CPD outcomes. The standard deviation is approximately 1.01, indicating that most residuals fall within one standard deviation of the mean prediction, which aligns with the expectations of normally distributed error terms in a well-fitting model.

The findings from Tables 8, 9, and 10 collectively demonstrate that the training types (traditional, collaborative, and technology-based) have a significant influence on CPD outcomes, with robust statistical support for their efficacy. The diagnostics for multicollinearity and residuals confirm that the regression models are sound and the data meet the necessary assumptions for valid conclusions. These results have critical implications for designing and implementing CPD programs. Educational policymakers and program developers are encouraged to integrate diverse training types to maximize CPD effectiveness, leveraging the strengths of each method while being mindful of the potential for overlapping influences in more complex models.

Table 8: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized	Standard Error	Standardized	t	p	95% CI Lower	95% CI Upper	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	(Intercept)	193.200	5.706		33.857	< .001	181.947	204.453		
2	(Intercept)	84.873	11.267		7.533	< .001	62.654	107.091		
	Tradional training approaches	3.939	0.374	0.599	10.524	< .001	3.201	4.677	1.000	1.000
3	(Intercept)	41.124	9.331		4.407	< .001	22.722	59.525		
	Tradional training approaches	3.589	0.287	0.546	12.513	< .001	3.023	4.154	0.990	1.010
	Collaborative learning	0.087	0.007	0.523	11.991	< .001	0.073	0.101	0.990	1.010
4	(Intercept)	-26.613	17.350		-1.534	0.127	-60.830	7.604		
	Tradional training approaches	3.367	0.278	0.512	12.123	< .001	2.820	3.915	0.959	1.043
	Collaborative learning	0.085	0.007	0.511	12.261	< .001	0.071	0.099	0.986	1.015
	Technology-based platforms	11.086	2.438	0.192	4.548	< .001	6.279	15.894	0.963	1.038

Table 9: Collinearity Diagnostics

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions (Intercept)	Tradional training approaches	Collaborative learning	Technology-based platforms
2	1	1.914	1.000	0.043	0.043		
	2	0.086	4.706	0.957	0.957		
3	1	2.630	1.000	0.019	0.021	0.044	

Table 9: Collinearity Diagnostics

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Intercept)	Tradional training approaches	Collaborative learning	Technology-based platforms
	2	0.287	3.029	0.044	0.129	0.905	
	3	0.083	5.623	0.937	0.850	0.051	
4	1	3.562	1.000	0.003	0.011	0.023	0.003
	2	0.308	3.401	0.006	0.053	0.960	0.008
	3	0.109	5.704	0.054	0.932	0.015	0.069
	4	0.020	13.219	0.937	0.003	0.002	0.921

Note. The intercept model is omitted, as no meaningful information can be shown.

Table 10: Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	N
Predicted Value	42.906	332.364	193.200	65.792	40
Residual	-121.324	144.132	-3.114×10^{-15}	46.731	40
Std. Predicted Value	-2.284	2.115	-7.911×10^{-17}	1.000	40
Std. Residual	-2.629	3.093	-2.506×10^{-4}	1.003	40

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study concludes that in-service teacher training plays a significant role in enhancing pedagogical skills and professional growth; however, its effectiveness is inconsistent, with some programs failing to address the immediate realities and demands of the classroom. Regular revision and adaptation of CPD initiatives are necessary to keep pace with evolving educational needs, particularly in areas such as technological proficiency, inclusive teaching practices, and differentiated instruction. Integrating digital tools and inclusive methodologies into training ensures that teachers are well-prepared to meet the diverse learning needs of students in modern classrooms. Furthermore, the adoption of practical, hands-on learning strategies that directly address current teaching challenges enhances the applicability and impact of training. Coaching and mentoring emerged as highly effective mechanisms for supporting teachers, offering personalised guidance that bridges the gap between theory and practice. Transformative learning approaches also proved beneficial, encouraging critical self-reflection and fostering substantial shifts in teaching attitudes and methodologies.

To enhance the effectiveness of CPD, it is recommended that programs be systematically revised and updated using data-driven evaluations, teacher feedback, and the latest pedagogical research. Prioritising digital competence and inclusivity should be central to training design, alongside adopting blended approaches such as experiential learning, collaborative workshops, and peer-led professional learning communities. Structured coaching and mentoring programs should be expanded to provide ongoing, tailored support for both novice and experienced teachers. Incorporating transformative learning theories can foster reflective practice, enhance adaptability, and promote deeper professional growth. Finally, a robust and continuous evaluation system, utilising surveys, classroom observations, and third-party assessments, should be embedded into CPD delivery to ensure ongoing improvement, relevance, and a measurable impact on teaching quality and learner outcomes.

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